

1 **Pharmacokinetics of penicillin G in preterm and term neonates**

2 Helgi Padari<sup>1</sup>, Tuuli Metsvaht<sup>1</sup>, Eva Germovsek<sup>2</sup>, Charlotte I Barker<sup>2,3</sup>, Karin Kipper<sup>3,4</sup>, Koit

3 Herodes<sup>4</sup>, Joseph F Standing<sup>2</sup>, Kersti Oselin<sup>5</sup>, Tõnis Tasa<sup>6</sup>, Hiie Soeorg<sup>7</sup>#, Irja Lutsar<sup>7</sup>

4

5 <sup>1</sup>Pediatric Intensive Care Unit, Tartu University Hospital, Tartu, Estonia

6 <sup>2</sup>UCL Great Ormond Street Institute of Child Health, University College London, London,

7 UK

8 <sup>3</sup>Paediatric Infectious Diseases Research Group, Institute for Infection and Immunity, St

9 George's University of London, London, UK

10 <sup>4</sup>Institute of Chemistry, University of Tartu, Estonia

11 <sup>5</sup>Clinic of Haematology and Oncology, North Estonia Medical Centre, Tallinn, Estonia

12 <sup>6</sup>Institute of Computer Science, University of Tartu, Estonia

13 <sup>7</sup>Department of Microbiology, University of Tartu, Tartu, Estonia

14

15 #Corresponding author: Hiie Soeorg; e-mail address: [hiie.soeorg@ut.ee](mailto:hiie.soeorg@ut.ee)

16

17 **Running title:** Pharmacokinetics of penicillin G in neonates

18 **Abstract**

19 Group B streptococci are common causative agents of early-onset neonatal sepsis (EOS).  
20 Pharmacokinetic (PK) data for penicillin G have been described for extremely preterm  
21 neonates but poorly for late-preterm and term neonates. Thus, evidence-based dosing  
22 recommendations are lacking. We described PK of penicillin G in neonates with gestational  
23 age (GA)  $\geq 32$  weeks and postnatal age  $< 72$  h. Penicillin G was administered intravenously at  
24 a dose of 25,000 or 50,000 IU/kg/q12h. At steady state, PK blood samples were collected  
25 prior to and at 5 min, 1 h, 3 h, 8 h, 12 h after injection. Non-compartmental PK analysis was  
26 performed with WinNonlin. In combination with data from neonates with GA  $\leq 28$  weeks we  
27 developed a population PK model using NONMEM software and performed probability of  
28 target attainment (PTA) simulations. In total, 16 neonates with GA  $\geq 32$  weeks were included  
29 in non-compartmental analysis. The median (interquartile range) volume of distribution (VD)  
30 was 0.50 (0.42-0.57) L/kg, clearance (CL) 0.21 (0.16-0.29) L/h and half-life 3.6 (3.2-4.3) h. In  
31 population PK analysis that included 35 neonates, a two-compartment model best described  
32 the data. The final parameter estimates were 10.3 L/70kg and 29.8 L/70kg for VD of the  
33 central and peripheral compartment, respectively, and 13.2 L/h/70kg for CL. Considering  
34 fraction of unbound penicillin G of 40%, PTA of time when the unbound drug exceeds MIC  
35 of 40% was  $> 90\%$  for MICs  $\leq 2$  mg/L with doses of 25,000 IU/kg/q12h. In neonates,  
36 regardless of GA, PK parameters of penicillin G are similar. The dose of 25,000 IU/kg/q12h  
37 is suggested for treatment of group B streptococcal EOS diagnosed within the first 72 hours of  
38 life.

39 **Introduction**

40 Group B streptococci (GBS) are the most common causative agent of early-onset sepsis  
41 (EOS) in neonates (1, 2). Furthermore, the incidence of EOS caused by GBS is increasing  
42 despite the implementation of intrapartum antibacterial prophylaxis (3, 4). GBS has remained  
43 universally susceptible to penicillin G with the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) that  
44 inhibits 90% of isolates (MIC<sub>90</sub>) being 0.06 mg/L (5). Guidelines recommend penicillin G in  
45 combination with an aminoglycoside for empiric antibacterial treatment of EOS (6). Although  
46 some units use ampicillin instead of penicillin G (1), penicillin G could be preferable due to  
47 its narrow antibacterial spectrum. The use of penicillin G is also supported by its equivalence  
48 to ampicillin-containing regimens (1, 7).

49

50 Penicillin G is one of the most frequently prescribed antibiotics in neonatal intensive care  
51 units in Europe, but the administered doses vary nearly fifteen-fold (8). The variations arise  
52 probably in part due to insufficient pharmacokinetic (PK) data and consequently few  
53 evidence-based dosing recommendations for very preterm neonates (9, 10), known to be at  
54 highest risk of development of EOS (1, 2). In neonates with a gestational age (GA)  $\leq 28$  weeks  
55 and  $< 32$  weeks, the doses of 25,000 IU/kg and 50,000 IU/kg, respectively, twice a day have  
56 been suggested for empiric treatment of EOS in previous PK studies (9, 10). Although the  
57 majority of EOS cases occur in term neonates (2), PK of penicillin G has been described in  
58 only few term neonates and no dosing recommendations were made (11). As penicillin G is  
59 primarily eliminated by kidneys and renal function is reduced in neonates with smaller GA  
60 (12), we hypothesized that doses needed to achieve sufficient serum concentrations could be  
61 higher in late-preterm and term compared with very preterm neonates, similar to other beta-  
62 lactams, for example ampicillin (13).

63 In adults, penicillin G is considered to achieve sufficient efficacy if time when the unbound  
64 drug exceeds MIC ( $fT > MIC$ ) is at least 40% of the dosing interval (14). However, dosing  
65 regimens that provide continuous concentrations above MIC are potentially more effective  
66 (15) and target  $fT > MIC$  of 100% has been recommended for immunocompromised patients,  
67 including neonates (16). A recent study, however, demonstrated that in neonates the ratio of  
68 the 24-hour area under the unbound drug concentration-time curve to the MIC ( $fAUC/MIC$ )  
69 was better correlated with bactericidal effect than  $fT > MIC$  (17), so  $fAUC/MIC > 100$  was  
70 proposed as a target (17).

71

72 Therefore, first, we aimed to describe the PK of intravenously administered penicillin G in  
73 neonates with  $GA \geq 32$  weeks requiring treatment for confirmed or suspected EOS. Second, in  
74 combination with the PK data from our previous study on neonates with  $GA \leq 28$  weeks (9),  
75 we aimed to develop a population PK (popPK) model to define an evidence-based dosing  
76 regimen for neonates.

77

## 78 **Methods**

79 **Study patients.** A prospective study was carried out from December 21, 2012 to November  
80 24, 2013 in the tertiary pediatric intensive care unit of Tartu University Hospital. Neonates  
81 with  $GA$  of  $\geq 32$  weeks were eligible if they (i) required penicillin G for treatment of  
82 suspected or confirmed EOS or pneumonia with clinical and laboratory criteria described  
83 elsewhere (18) and (ii) had an arterial or central venous catheter inserted for clinical  
84 indications. Neonates who were likely to be infected with microorganisms resistant to  
85 penicillin G or participated in any other study (apart from observational studies involving only  
86 data registration) were excluded. The neonates were stratified into two groups based on  $GA$   
87 ( $32 \leq$  to  $< 35$  weeks and  $\geq 35$  weeks).

88 **Study drug administration.** Penicillin G (Sandoz GmbH, Kundl, Austria) was reconstituted  
89 in 0.9% sodium chloride to a final concentration of 60 mg/mL no more than 10 minutes prior  
90 to administration. A dose of 25,000 IU (15 mg)/kg or 50,000 IU (30 mg)/kg, chosen by the  
91 treating physician (50,000 IU/kg if meningitis was suspected, i.e. disturbances of  
92 consciousness, lethargy, worsening apnoea, seizures or suspicion of seizures, bulging  
93 fontanelle), was based on the current body weight and administered every 12 hours as a 3-  
94 minute infusion into a central or peripheral venous catheter.

95 **Sampling and sample handling.** PK samples were collected at steady state (after at least 36  
96 h of therapy), mostly after the fifth dose of penicillin G. Blood was drawn from the arterial or  
97 central venous catheter prior to and at 5 min, 1 h, 3 h, 8 h and 12 h after the dose. As  
98 penicillin G is stable at room temperature for at least 1 hour (19), samples were immediately  
99 centrifuged at 3,500 rpm for 10 minutes and thereafter frozen at -20° C and transferred to -80°  
100 C within 24 h. The samples were stored at -80° C for maximum of 12 months during which  
101 penicillin G remains stable (19, 20) until concentrations were measured.

102 **Penicillin G assay.** Samples were thawed at room temperature. For protein precipitation, 50  
103 µL of serum was mixed with 50 µL of acetonitrile containing piperacillin as an internal  
104 standard (I.S.) at a concentration of 10 µg/mL. Supernatant obtained after centrifugation of  
105 serum were filtered and transferred into the autosampler vials.

106 From each prepared sample 3 µL was injected into an Agilent 1290 Infinity UHPLC system.  
107 Gradient elution with methanol and 5 mM 1,1,1,3,3,3-hexafluoro-2-methyl-2-propanol in  
108 water (pH adjusted to 10.5 using ammonium hydroxide) at a flow rate of 0.3 mL/min was  
109 used for chromatographic separation on Waters Acquity UPLC BEH C18 column (2.1 × 100  
110 mm, 1.7 µm) with pre-column. For detection Agilent Series 1100 LC/MSD Trap XCT was  
111 used with electrospray interface in positive mode using multiple reaction monitoring.

112 Transitions of  $m/z$  335  $[M+H]^+$  to  $m/z$  160, 176 and  $m/z$  518  $[M+H]^+$  to  $m/z$  143, 160 were  
113 used for the quantification and qualification of penicillin G and I.S., respectively.

114 A matrix matched calibration was used for validation of the described methodology according  
115 to the European Medicines Agency guidelines (21). The calibration curves were linear in  
116 concentration range 0.15-150  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  in serum and had  $r^2 > 0.9996$ . The limit of quantification  
117 (LoQ) for serum samples was 0.147  $\mu\text{g/mL}$  and the limit of detection was 0.05  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ . The  
118 within-day accuracy ranged from 2% to 9% for the serum calibration curve. The between-day  
119 precision for serum samples was  $<6\%$ .

120 **Monitoring of study patients.** Vital parameters were continuously monitored and recorded at  
121 screening, immediately prior to PK sampling and within 72 hours after completion of the  
122 penicillin G treatment. All concomitant medications, respiratory support, vasoactive treatment  
123 and laboratory parameters from blood samples drawn for clinical indications were also  
124 recorded. Serum creatinine was measured by the compensated Jaffe kinetic method  
125 standardized against isotope dilution mass spectrometry.

126 **PK analyses.** Non-compartmental analysis (NCA) of concentration-time data was performed  
127 in Phoenix WinNonlin software (version 6.5.1; Pharsight Corporation, CA, USA). The area  
128 under the concentration-time curve over the dosing interval of 0 to 12 h ( $\text{AUC}_{0-12}$ ) was  
129 calculated by use of the log-linear trapezoidal rule. The  $\text{AUC}_{0-12}$  was used to calculate the  
130 total body clearance. The apparent volume of distribution (VD) was determined by calculating  
131 the mean residence time extrapolated to infinity.

132 PopPK analysis was performed in NONMEM software (version 7.3; ICON plc, Dublin,  
133 Ireland). Concentration-time data from the current and our previous study (9) were pooled and  
134 analyzed simultaneously. One-, two- and three-compartment structural models were compared  
135 in which, due to the *a priori* assumption of the dependence of renal maturation on  
136 postmenstrual age (PMA), clearance was scaled as recommended by Germovsek *et al.* (22),

137 by adding allometric weight scaling and a sigmoid renal maturation model that includes PMA  
138 (23). After choosing the model that provided the best fit, the influence of the following  
139 covariates on clearance and VD was tested: birth weight (BW), GA, serum creatinine  
140 concentration and need for continuous positive airway pressure or mechanical ventilation. A  
141 covariate was retained in the model if it caused a significant decrease in the objective function  
142 value, corresponding to  $p < 0.01$ .

143 **Probability of target attainment (PTA).** The final popPK model was used in 5000-patient  
144 Monte Carlo simulation generating concentration-time curves at steady state for penicillin G  
145 doses of 25,000, 50,000 and 100,000 IU/kg administered at 12-hour intervals as a 3-min  
146 infusion if protein binding was not considered and with the fraction of unbound penicillin G  
147 of 40% according to penicillin binding data from adult studies (24). PMA were simulated by  
148 sampling from a uniform distribution (range: 24-42 weeks), and the corresponding body  
149 weights were obtained using the model by Sumpter & Holford (25). Pharmacodynamic targets  
150  $fT > MIC$  and  $fAUC/MIC$  ratio were calculated for MIC values 0.006, 0.125, 0.25, 0.5, 1 and 2  
151 mg/L applicable for GBS and enterococci (26). PTA was calculated for  $fT > MIC$  of 40% and  
152 100% and  $fAUC/MIC > 100$ . All simulations were performed in R software (version 3.2.2;  
153 The R Foundation, Vienna, Austria).

154 The protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Tartu. A parent  
155 signed an informed consent prior to the inclusion of neonate in the study. The study was  
156 registered with the EU Clinical Trials Register (EudraCT Number: 2012-002836-97).

157

## 158 **Results**

159 **Patients.** For the current study, a total of 25 neonates with  $GA \geq 32$  weeks were screened, of  
160 whom 17 were enrolled. Reasons for exclusion were lack of informed consent ( $n=3$ ), absence  
161 of arterial or central venous catheter ( $n=3$ ), participation in another study ( $n=1$ ) and change in

162 antimicrobial therapy (n=1). The demographic and clinical characteristics are shown in Table  
163 1. Penicillin G was administered for treatment of EOS (n=4), congenital pneumonia (n=1),  
164 other/suspected congenital infection (n=9) and meconium aspiration syndrome (n=3). All  
165 patients received concomitant therapy with gentamicin (4 mg/kg/q24h), but none received  
166 other potentially nephrotoxic drugs on the PK sampling day. None of the neonates had a  
167 positive blood culture.

168 **Non-compartmental PK analysis.** NCA was performed on data from 16 patients. One  
169 neonate with GA >35 weeks was excluded due to insufficient number of PK samples (n=2).  
170 The median values of the CL, VD and half-life were similar regardless of GA (largest relative  
171 difference in VD – mean 0.54 L/kg and 0.46 L/kg (p=0.25) in neonates with GA 32-34 weeks  
172 and ≥35 weeks, respectively) and thus the values of the PK parameters are presented only  
173 based on the dose of penicillin G (Table 2). As expected, the dose of 50,000 IU/kg resulted in  
174 higher values of  $C_{max}$ ,  $C_{min}$  and fAUC than 25,000 IU/kg (Table 2).

175 **PopPK analysis.** In total 35 neonates (17 from the current study and 18 from the previous  
176 study (9)) were included in the popPK analysis. A two-compartment model with allometric  
177 weight scaling and a renal maturation function provided the best fit to the concentration-time  
178 data. None of the covariates tested significantly improved the model fit and were thus not  
179 retained in the final model. The PK parameter estimates of the final model are shown in Table  
180 3. Parameters for median values for the population used in the popPK modelling (current  
181 weight 1.28 kg, PMA 32.3 weeks) were as follows: clearance 0.15 L/h, central VD 0.19 L,  
182 intercompartmental clearance 2.76 L/h, peripheral VD 0.54 L.

183 Overall, goodness-of-fit plots (Figure 1) and the visual predictive check (Figure 2) showed  
184 good prediction of data by the model.

185 **PTA analysis.** The PTA for  $fT > MIC$  of 40% was  $>90\%$  for all tested MIC values and doses  
186 of 25,000, 50,000 and 100,000 IU/kg if protein binding was not considered and if the fraction  
187 of unbound penicillin G was 40% (data not shown).  
188 The PTA of  $fT > MIC$  of 100% was  $>90\%$  for all doses for MIC values of  $\leq 0.5$  mg/L only if  
189 protein binding was not considered (Figure 3A). If the fraction of unbound penicillin G was  
190 40%, the same target was achieved with all doses only if MIC was  $\leq 0.125$  mg/L (Figure 3B).  
191 If protein binding was not considered, the PTA of  $fAUC/MIC > 100$  was  $>90\%$  for all tested  
192 MIC values with doses of 50,000 and 100,000 IU/kg and remained  $>90\%$  with dose of 25,000  
193 IU/kg for MIC values  $\leq 1$  mg/L (Figure 4A). If the fraction of unbound penicillin G was 40%,  
194 the PTA  $>90\%$  was achieved with doses 25,000, 50,000 and 100,000 IU/kg only if MIC was  
195  $\leq 0.5$ ,  $\leq 1$  and  $\leq 2$  mg/L, respectively (Figure 4B).

196

## 197 **Discussion**

198 This study reports, to our best knowledge, the largest neonatal penicillin G population PK  
199 analysis to date. We demonstrated that in neonates PK parameters of intravenously  
200 administered penicillin G during the first week of life are similar regardless of GA. According  
201 to popPK model the dose of 25,000 IU/kg every 12 hours could be suggested for treatment of  
202 EOS caused by GBS regardless of pharmacodynamic target ( $fT > MIC$  40%,  $fT > MIC$  100% or  
203  $fAUC/MIC > 100$ ) and the GA (ranging from 24 to 40 weeks).

204

205 Contrary to our hypothesis, the values of half-life and volume of distribution of penicillin G in  
206 late-preterm and term neonates were comparable to those in very and extremely preterm  
207 neonates that vary in the ranges of 3.8-4.6 h and 0.41-0.64 L/kg, respectively (9, 10). This  
208 corroborates previous findings that half-life of penicillin G in serum in neonates does not  
209 depend on BW or GA (10, 27). Similarity in VD could result in part from relatively larger

210 weight loss after birth in more premature neonates compared with more mature ones (28) and  
211 several factors could contribute to similarity in clearance throughout neonatal period. First,  
212 tubular secretion that is the main elimination mechanism of penicillin G in adults (29) is  
213 equally reduced in preterm and term neonates as a result of decreased renal blood flow to  
214 peritubular areas (30). Second, glomerular filtration has been suggested to be relatively more  
215 important than tubular secretion in elimination of penicillin G in neonates (27). Although  
216 clearance depends on GA (31), the difference between preterm and term neonates in  
217 glomerular filtration rate is less pronounced within the first days of life, increasing only by  
218 0.0205 mL/min/kg per each week of postconceptional age (32, 33). Finally, the fraction of  
219 beta-lactams bound to proteins is reduced in more premature neonates that may also  
220 contribute to higher clearance (34). Notably, for other beta-lactams, such as doripenem and  
221 cefepime, clearance was similar regardless of GA within the first week of life (35, 36). Even  
222 for amikacin that is almost entirely eliminated by glomerular filtration the difference in  
223 clearance was only slightly higher in the first postnatal day in neonates with larger BW  
224 compared with those with smaller BW (37). However, contribution of elimination  
225 mechanisms other than kidneys cannot be excluded in neonates, as the fraction of penicillin G  
226 dose excreted into urine is considerably lower in neonates (26-37%) (9, 27), compared to  
227 adults (58%) (29).

228

229 We found that a two-compartment model described data best. This is in agreement with the  
230 only published study describing population pharmacokinetics of penicillin G in neonates  
231 conducted by Muller *et al.* (10), who analyzed data from neonates with GA <32 weeks.  
232 However, while in the model by Muller *et al.*, GA was not included in the final model  
233 (possibly due to the small range of GA), in our study GA was included indirectly, i.e.  
234 incorporated in the PMA-dependent renal maturation function. The use of PMA rather than

235 GA is supported by a recent comparison of models for scaling clearance in children by  
236 accounting for size and maturation (22).

237

238 Our study showed that in neonates, regardless of GA, the target of  $fT > MIC$  of 40% was  
239 achieved with PTA  $> 90\%$  when the fraction of unbound penicillin G of 40% was assumed  
240 using a dose of 25,000 IU/kg twice a day for all MIC values tested (up to 2 mg/L). This dose  
241 is within the range recommended by Neofax (15-30 mg/kg every 12 hours) (38), but is less  
242 than that suggested by the British National Formulary for Children (25 mg/kg every 12 hours)  
243 (39). Still, according to evidence statements in NICE Clinical Guidelines, a dose of 25,000  
244 IU/kg is effective in preterm neonates, although no evidence was identified for dosing in term  
245 neonates (6). Although the previous popPK study of penicillin G in neonates with GA  $< 32$   
246 weeks suggested dosing regimen of 50,000 IU/kg twice daily (10), our proposed dosing  
247 regimen proposed should be adequate for treatment of EOS, due to several reasons. a) GBS is  
248 susceptible to penicillin G with  $MIC_{90}$  as low as 0.06 mg/L (5) and viridans-group  
249 streptococci that may cause up to 19% of EOS cases (2) have  $MIC_{90}$  0.5 mg/L (40). b)  
250 Although we did not measure the fraction of unbound penicillin G and no prior data are  
251 available in neonates within the first days of life, the fraction unbound is known to be reduced  
252 immediately after birth compared with adults (24). Thus, the unbound drug fraction of 40%  
253 that is based on values in adults (24) should be a conservative estimate and the actual  
254 unbound concentrations in neonates are most likely higher than estimated in this study. c)  
255 While penicillin G bactericidal activity requires  $fT > MIC$  38% in adults, the same study  
256 showed that in neonates  $fT > MIC$  32% was bactericidal (17). Therefore, for neonates with  
257 immature immune systems the somewhat higher target of  $fT > MIC$  of 40% should be  
258 appropriate (42, 43). d) Even the target of  $fT > MIC$  as high as 100% that is more likely  
259 associated with clinical cure (15, 16) was achieved with PTA  $> 90\%$  for MIC values  $\leq 0.125$

260 mg/L and with PTA approximately 80% for MIC values  $\leq 0.5$  mg/L with the dose of 25,000  
261 IU/kg twice daily. Moreover, PTA of  $\text{fAUC}/\text{MIC} > 100$  that was shown to be better correlated  
262 with bactericidal activity in neonates (17) remained  $> 90\%$  for MIC values  $\leq 0.5$  mg/L.  
263 Therefore, 25,000 IU/kg should be appropriate and avoids unnecessarily high doses of  
264 penicillin G that may counteract treatment by evoking the so-called Eagle effect, which  
265 results in a reduced killing rate of GBS by penicillin G concentrations above the optimal level  
266 (44). Moreover, excessively high doses of penicillin G may cause toxicity including  
267 encephalopathy (46) or coagulation disorders (47). The dose of 25,000 IU/kg was well  
268 tolerated in a clinical study that included 142 neonates with suspected EOS (7) and no drug-  
269 related adverse events were observed in our study.

270

271 Some limitations of the study should be noted. First, we cannot exclude the effect of  
272 unrecorded clinical characteristics on the PK parameter estimates. For example, in our  
273 previous study all except one mother of neonates with GA of  $\leq 28$  weeks received steroid  
274 prophylaxis before birth, but betamethasone increases glomerular filtration rate (48).  
275 However, the small number of neonates studied did not allow analysis of this covariate (49).  
276 Moreover, covariates other than those reflecting size, age and renal function are only  
277 occasionally incorporated in the final models describing PK of primarily renally eliminated  
278 antibiotics (50). Second, although clearance depends on renal function in addition to growth  
279 and maturation (50), a covariate reflecting renal function was not included in our model.  
280 However, the lack of effect of creatinine on the model fit was expected, as in the first days of  
281 life neonatal serum creatinine values reflect maternal concentrations (51) and less than half of  
282 models describing PK of primarily renally eliminated antibiotics incorporate serum creatinine  
283 (50). Finally, we did not measure penicillin G concentrations in cerebrospinal fluid, which  
284 could also be considered given that concomitant meningitis occurs in 2-6% of EOS cases (2,

285 52), whereas in culture-positive cases the proportion is as high as 26% (52). Although 25,000  
286 IU/kg twice a day has been suggested to be adequate (9), the PK of penicillin G in  
287 cerebrospinal fluid warrants further studies to provide evidence for dosing regimens for  
288 meningitis.

289

290 In conclusion, our results show that the current dosing regimen of 25,000 IU/kg every 12h for  
291 EOS results in sufficient serum concentrations of penicillin G. The dosing regimen is  
292 appropriate against GBS as the commonest causative agents of EOS regardless of  
293 pharmacodynamic target ( $fT > MIC$  40% or 100% or  $fAUC/MIC > 100$ ) and GA due to the  
294 similarity of PK parameters of penicillin G within the first days of life in preterm and term  
295 neonates.

296

### 297 **Acknowledgements**

298 This study was supported by Archimedes Foundation (Project No. 3.2.1001.11-0032). EG was  
299 supported by an IMPACT PhD studentship from University College London (UCL), and  
300 received funding from the NeoMero study, part of the European Union Seventh Framework  
301 Programme for research, technological development and demonstration (Grant Agreement  
302 number 242146), and also from Action Medical Research (grant code SP4650, GN1834). CIB  
303 was funded as a Clinical Research Fellow by the Global Research in Paediatrics Network of  
304 Excellence (GRiP), part of the European Union's Seventh Framework Programme for  
305 research, technological development and demonstration (FP7/2007–2013, Grant Agreement  
306 number 261060). JFS has received funding from United Kingdom Medical Research Council  
307 Fellowships (grants G1002305 and M008665). EG, CIB and JFS have been supported by the  
308 National Institute for Health Research Biomedical Research Centre at Great Ormond Street  
309 Hospital for Children NHS Foundation Trust and University College London.

310 **References**

311

- 312 1. Fjalstad JW, Stensvold HJ, Bergseng H, Simonsen GS, Salvesen B, Rønnestad AE,  
313 Klingenberg C. 2016. Early-onset Sepsis and Antibiotic Exposure in Term Infants: A  
314 Nationwide Population-based Study in Norway. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 35:1-6.
- 315 2. Schrag SJ, Farley MM, Petit S, Reingold A, Weston EJ, Pondo T, Hudson Jain J,  
316 Lynfield R. 2016. Epidemiology of Invasive Early-Onset Neonatal Sepsis, 2005 to  
317 2014. *Pediatrics* 138:e20162013.
- 318 3. Lamagni TL, Keshishian C, Efstratiou A, Guy R, Henderson KL, Broughton K,  
319 Sheridan E. 2013. Emerging trends in the epidemiology of invasive group B  
320 streptococcal disease in England and Wales, 1991-2010. *Clin Infect Dis* 57:682-8.
- 321 4. Bekker V, Bijlsma MW, van de Beek D, Kuijpers TW, van der Ende A. 2014.  
322 Incidence of invasive group B streptococcal disease and pathogen genotype  
323 distribution in newborn babies in the Netherlands over 25 years: a nationwide  
324 surveillance study. *Lancet Infect Dis* 14:1083-1089.
- 325 5. Karlowsky JA, Adam HJ, Baxter MR, Lagacé-Wiens PR, Walkty AJ, Hoban DJ,  
326 Zhanel GG. 2013. In vitro activity of ceftaroline-avibactam against gram-negative and  
327 gram-positive pathogens isolated from patients in Canadian hospitals from 2010 to  
328 2012: results from the CANWARD surveillance study. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*  
329 57:5600-11.
- 330 6. National Collaborating Centre for Women's and Children's Health. 2012. Antibiotics  
331 for Early-onset Neonatal Infection: Antibiotics for the Prevention and Treatment of  
332 Early-onset Neonatal Infection. RCOG Press at the Royal College of Obstetricians and  
333 Gynaecologists, London.

- 334 7. Metsvaht T, Ilmoja ML, Parm U, Maipuu L, Merila M, Lutsar I. 2010. Comparison of  
335 ampicillin plus gentamicin vs. penicillin plus gentamicin in empiric treatment of  
336 neonates at risk of early onset sepsis. *Acta Paediatr* 99:665-72.
- 337 8. Metsvaht T, Nellis G, Varendi H, Nunn AJ, Graham S, Rieutord A, Storme T,  
338 McElnay J, Mulla H, Turner MA, Lutsar I. 2015. High variability in the dosing of  
339 commonly used antibiotics revealed by a Europe-wide point prevalence study:  
340 implications for research and dissemination. *BMC Pediatr* 15:41.
- 341 9. Metsvaht T, Oselin K, Ilmoja ML, Anier K, Lutsar I. 2007. Pharmacokinetics of  
342 penicillin G in very-low-birth-weight neonates. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*  
343 51:1995-2000.
- 344 10. Muller AE, DeJongh J, Bult Y, Goessens WH, Mouton JW, Danhof M, van den Anker  
345 JN. 2007. Pharmacokinetics of penicillin G in infants with a gestational age of less  
346 than 32 weeks. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 51:3720-5.
- 347 11. Mulhall A. 1985. Antibiotic treatment of neonates--does route of administration  
348 matter? *Dev Pharmacol Ther* 8:1-8.
- 349 12. Schreuder MF, Bueters RR, Allegaert K. 2014. The interplay between drugs and the  
350 kidney in premature neonates. *Pediatr Nephrol* 29:2083-91.
- 351 13. Tremoulet A, Le J, Poindexter B, Sullivan JE, Laughon M, Delmore P, Salgado A,  
352 Ian-U Chong S, Melloni C, Gao J, Benjamin DK, Capparelli EV, Cohen-Wolkowicz  
353 M, Administrative Core Committee of the Best Pharmaceuticals for Children Act-  
354 Pediatric Trials Network. 2014. Characterization of the population pharmacokinetics  
355 of ampicillin in neonates using an opportunistic study design. *Antimicrob Agents*  
356 *Chemother* 58:3013-20.
- 357 14. Craig WA. 1998. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic parameters: rationale for  
358 antibacterial dosing of mice and men. *Clin Infect Dis* 26:1-10; quiz 11-2.

- 359 15. Eagle H, Fleischman R, Musselman AD. 1950. Effect of schedule of administration on  
360 the therapeutic efficacy of penicillin; importance of the aggregate time penicillin  
361 remains at effectively bactericidal levels. *Am J Med* 9:280-99.
- 362 16. McKinnon PS, Paladino JA, Schentag JJ. 2008. Evaluation of area under the inhibitory  
363 curve (AUC) and time above the minimum inhibitory concentration (T>MIC) as  
364 predictors of outcome for cefepime and ceftazidime in serious bacterial infections. *Int*  
365 *J Antimicrob Agents* 31:345-51.
- 366 17. Nielsen EI, Cars O, Friberg LE. 2011. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic (PK/PD)  
367 indices of antibiotics predicted by a semimechanistic PKPD model: a step toward  
368 model-based dose optimization. *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 55:4619-30.
- 369 18. European Medicines Agency. 2010. Report on the Expert Meeting on Neonatal and  
370 Paediatric Sepsis, London.
- 371 19. Kipper K, Barker CIS, Standing JF, Sharland M, Johnston A. 2017. Development of a  
372 novel multi-penicillin assay and assessment of the impact of analyte degradation:  
373 lessons for scavenged sampling in antimicrobial pharmacokinetic study design.  
374 *Antimicrob Agents Chemother*.
- 375 20. Shelver WL, Chakrabarty S, Smith DJ. 2017. Comparison of Lateral Flow Assay,  
376 Kidney Inhibition Swab, and Liquid Chromatography-Tandem Mass Spectrometry for  
377 the Detection of Penicillin G Residues in Sow Urine. *J Agric Food Chem* 65:1778-  
378 1783.
- 379 21. European Medicines Agency. 2011. Guideline on bioanalytical method validation.
- 380 22. Germovsek E, Barker CI, Sharland M, Standing JF. 2017. Scaling clearance in  
381 paediatric pharmacokinetics: All models are wrong, which are useful? *Br J Clin*  
382 *Pharmacol* 83:777-790.

- 383 23. Rhodin MM, Anderson BJ, Peters AM, Coulthard MG, Wilkins B, Cole M, Chatelut  
384 E, Grubb A, Veal GJ, Keir MJ, Holford NH. 2009. Human renal function maturation:  
385 a quantitative description using weight and postmenstrual age. *Pediatr Nephrol* 24:67-  
386 76.
- 387 24. Ehrnebo M, Agurell S, Jalling B, Boréus LO. 1971. Age differences in drug binding  
388 by plasma proteins: studies on human foetuses, neonates and adults. *Eur J Clin*  
389 *Pharmacol* 3:189-93.
- 390 25. Sumpter AL, Holford NH. 2011. Predicting weight using postmenstrual age--neonates  
391 to adults. *Paediatr Anaesth* 21:309-15.
- 392 26. European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing. 2014. Breakpoint tables  
393 for interpretation of MICs and zone diameters.
- 394 27. McCracken GH, Ginsberg C, Chrane DF, Thomas ML, Horton LJ. 1973. Clinical  
395 pharmacology of penicillin in newborn infants. *J Pediatr* 82:692-8.
- 396 28. Anchieta LM, Xavier CC, Colosimo EA, Souza MF. 2003. Weight of preterm  
397 newborns during the first twelve weeks of life. *Braz J Med Biol Res* 36:761-70.
- 398 29. Rammelkamp CH, Keefer CS. 1943. The absorption, excretion, and distribution of  
399 penicillin. *J Clin Invest* 22:425-37.
- 400 30. Koren G. 1997. Therapeutic drug monitoring principles in the neonate. National  
401 Academy of CLinical Biochemistry. *Clin Chem* 43:222-7.
- 402 31. Bueva A, Guignard JP. 1994. Renal function in preterm neonates. *Pediatr Res* 36:572-  
403 7.
- 404 32. Aperia A, Broberger O, Elinder G, Herin P, Zetterström R. 1981. Postnatal  
405 development of renal function in pre-term and full-term infants. *Acta Paediatr Scand*  
406 70:183-7.

- 407 33. Wilkins BH. 1992. Renal function in sick very low birthweight infants: 1. Glomerular  
408 filtration rate. *Arch Dis Child* 67:1140-5.
- 409 34. Kimura T, Sunakawa K, Matsuura N, Kubo H, Shimada S, Yago K. 2004. Population  
410 pharmacokinetics of arbekacin, vancomycin, and panipenem in neonates. *Antimicrob*  
411 *Agents Chemother* 48:1159-67.
- 412 35. Cirillo I, Vaccaro N, Castaneda-Ruiz B, Redman R, Cossey V, Bradley JS, Allegaert  
413 K. 2015. Open-Label Study To Evaluate the Single-Dose Pharmacokinetics, Safety,  
414 and Tolerability of Doripenem in Infants Less than 12 Weeks in Chronological Age.  
415 *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 59:4742-9.
- 416 36. Capparelli E, Hochwald C, Rasmussen M, Parham A, Bradley J, Moya F. 2005.  
417 Population pharmacokinetics of cefepime in the neonate. *Antimicrob Agents*  
418 *Chemother* 49:2760-6.
- 419 37. De Cock RF, Allegaert K, Schreuder MF, Sherwin CM, de Hoog M, van den Anker  
420 JN, Danhof M, Knibbe CA. 2012. Maturation of the glomerular filtration rate in  
421 neonates, as reflected by amikacin clearance. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 51:105-17.
- 422 38. Young T, Mangum B. 2010. Neofax. Thomson Reuters, Montvale, NJ.
- 423 39. Paediatric Formulary Committee. 2017. BNF for Children. BMJ Group and  
424 Pharmaceutical Press, London.
- 425 40. Prabhu RM, Piper KE, Baddour LM, Steckelberg JM, Wilson WR, Patel R. 2004.  
426 Antimicrobial susceptibility patterns among viridans group streptococcal isolates from  
427 infective endocarditis patients from 1971 to 1986 and 1994 to 2002. *Antimicrob*  
428 *Agents Chemother* 48:4463-5.
- 429 41. Bins JW, Mattie H. 1988. Saturation of the tubular excretion of beta-lactam  
430 antibiotics. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 25:41-50.

- 431 42. Shoji K, Bradley JS, Reed MD, van den Anker JN, Domonoske C, Capparelli EV.  
432 2016. Population Pharmacokinetic Assessment and Pharmacodynamic Implications of  
433 Pediatric Cefepime Dosing for Susceptible-Dose-Dependent Organisms. *Antimicrob*  
434 *Agents Chemother* 60:2150-6.
- 435 43. Bradley JS, Sauberan JB, Ambrose PG, Bhavnani SM, Rasmussen MR, Capparelli  
436 EV. 2008. Meropenem pharmacokinetics, pharmacodynamics, and Monte Carlo  
437 simulation in the neonate. *Pediatr Infect Dis J* 27:794-9.
- 438 44. Eagle H, Musselman AD. 1948. The rate of bactericidal action of penicillin in vitro as  
439 a function of its concentration, and its paradoxically reduced activity at high  
440 concentrations against certain organisms. *J Exp Med* 88:99-131.
- 441 45. Jokipii L, Brander P, Jokipii AM. 1985. Reverse inoculum effect in bactericidal  
442 activity and other variables affecting killing of group B streptococci by penicillin.  
443 *Antimicrob Agents Chemother* 27:948-52.
- 444 46. Raichle ME, Kutt H, Louis S, McDowell F. 1971. Neurotoxicity of intravenously  
445 administered penicillin G. *Arch Neurol* 25:232-9.
- 446 47. Andrassy K, Ritz E, Hasper B, Scherz M, Walter E, Storch H. 1976. Penicillin-  
447 induced coagulation disorder. *Lancet* 2:1039-41.
- 448 48. van den Anker JN, Hop WC, de Groot R, van der Heijden BJ, Broerse HM,  
449 Lindemans J, Sauer PJ. 1994. Effects of prenatal exposure to betamethasone and  
450 indomethacin on the glomerular filtration rate in the preterm infant. *Pediatr Res*  
451 36:578-81.
- 452 49. Ribbing J, Jonsson EN. 2004. Power, selection bias and predictive performance of the  
453 Population Pharmacokinetic Covariate Model. *J Pharmacokinet Pharmacodyn* 31:109-  
454 34.

- 455 50. Wilbaux M, Fuchs A, Samardzic J, Rodieux F, Csajka C, Allegaert K, van den Anker  
456 JN, Pfister M. 2016. Pharmacometric Approaches to Personalize Use of Primarily  
457 Renally Eliminated Antibiotics in Preterm and Term Neonates. *J Clin Pharmacol*  
458 56:909-35.
- 459 51. Guignard JP, Drukker A. 1999. Why do newborn infants have a high plasma  
460 creatinine? *Pediatrics* 103:e49.
- 461 52. Drageset M, Fjalstad JW, Mortensen S, Klingenberg C. 2017. Management of early-  
462 onset neonatal sepsis differs in the north and south of Scandinavia. *Acta Paediatr*  
463 106:375-381.
- 464

465 **Table 1.** The demographic and clinical characteristics of the two study groups<sup>a</sup>

	Study group based on gestational age	
	32–34 weeks (n = 7)	≥35 weeks (n = 10)
Male sex (no. of subjects)	4	7
Birth weight (kg)	2.1 (2.0-2.5)	3.3 (3.0-3.9)
Body weight on PK sampling day (kg)	2.0 (1.8-2.3)	3.1 (2.9-3.8)
Postnatal age on PK sampling day (days)	3.0 (2.0-3.5)	2.5 (2.0-3.0)
Number of penicillin G doses before PK sampling	6.0 (5.0-8.5)	5.0 (5.0-6.5)
Duration of treatment with penicillin G (days)	6.5 (5.8-7.3)	6.0 (3.9-7.6)
Vasoactive support <sup>b</sup> (no. of subjects)	2	3
Respiratory support <sup>c</sup> (no. of subjects)	5	3
Serum creatinine <sup>d</sup> (μmol/L)	52.0 (41.5-66.0)	61.0 (50.8-68.3)
Albumin <sup>d</sup> (g/L)	31.0 (27.0-34.0)	32.0 (31.0-32.3)
C-reactive protein <sup>d</sup> (mg/L)	2.0 (1.0-11.0)	15.0 (5.3-62.5)
Bilirubin <sup>d</sup> (μmol/L)	156.0 (129.0- 227.0)	131.0 (116.5- 137.0)

466 <sup>a</sup>Data are presented as median (interquartile range) unless otherwise specified.467 <sup>b</sup>Dobutamine (n=4), dopamine and dobutamine (n=1)468 <sup>c</sup>Mechanical ventilation (n=3), continuous positive airway pressure (n=5)469 <sup>d</sup>Laboratory parameters were measured on the PK sampling day ± 1 day.

470 **Table 2.** The pharmacokinetic parameters (median (interquartile range)) estimated by non-  
 471 compartmental analysis for the neonates in this study in comparison with the values for  
 472 neonates with GA  $\leq$ 28 weeks in our previous study (9)

Study group	Neonates with gestational age			
	$\geq$ 32 weeks (this study)		$\leq$ 28 weeks (previous study (9))	
based on dose	25,000 IU/kg (n=12)	50,000 IU/kg (n=4)	25,000 IU/kg (n=9)	50,000 IU/kg (n=8)
Actual dose (IU/kg)	26,820 (25,845-27,178)	51,076 (50,594-51,980)	23,913 (22,936-24,124)	46,875 (46,440-48,143)
VD (L/kg)	0.48 (0.38-0.51)	0.63 (0.58-0.67)	0.64 (0.50-0.71)	0.41 (0.33-0.57)
CL (L/h/kg)	0.21 (0.17-0.29)	0.25 (0.19-0.35)	0.09 (0.07-0.11)	0.07 (0.07-0.08)
$t_{1/2}$ (h)	3.5 (3.0-4.2)	4.2 (3.9-5.0)	4.6 (3.8-5.6)	3.8 (3.3-7.0)
$C_{max}$ (mg/L)	62.5 (51.1-74.8)	94.5 (87.3-98.7)	58.9 (52.9-77.5)	145.5 (108.6-157.3)
$C_{min}$ (mg/L)	3.3 (2.3-4.9)	6.4 (5.4-7.5)	3.4 (2.9-3.6)	7.1 (5.2-12.9)
$AUC_{0-12}$ (h*mg/L)	173.6 (127.6-205.7)	225.1 (212.0-295.0)	161.2 (136.3-169.6)	389.3 (341.3-436.2)

473  $AUC_{0-12}$ , area under the drug concentration-time curve over the dosing interval of 0 to 12 h;

474  $C_{max}$ , the maximum concentration in serum;  $C_{min}$ , the minimum concentration in serum; CL,

475 clearance; VD, volume of distribution;  $t_{1/2}$ , half-life.

476 **Table 3.** The pharmacokinetic parameters estimated by the final population pharmacokinetic  
477 model

	Mean	SE	RSE (%)	CV (%)	ETA shrinkage (%)
CL (L/h/70kg)	13.2	1.04	7.9	39	2.00
V (L/70kg)	10.3	2.17	21.0	23	55.1
Q (L/h/70kg)	55.6	10.2	18.4	-	-
V2 (L/70kg)	29.8	2.56	8.6	35	23.8

478 CL, clearance; CV, coefficient of variation; Q, intercompartmental clearance; RSE, relative  
479 standard error; SE, standard error; V, volume of distribution of the central compartment; V2,  
480 volume of distribution of the peripheral compartment.

481 Residual error (proportional): 13%

482 Residual error (additive): 0.278

483 **Figure 1.** Goodness-of-fit plots from the final population pharmacokinetic model. DV,  
484 observed penicillin G concentration (mg/L); PRED, population-predicted concentration  
485 (mg/L); IPRED, individual-predicted concentration (mg/L); CWRES, conditional weighted  
486 residuals; TAD, time after dose in hours.

487

488 **Figure 2.** Visual predictive check. The points represent the observed data. The black lines  
489 (dashed and solid) represent the 2.5th, 50th, 97.5th percentiles of the observed data and the  
490 grey bands represent the 95% confidence interval around these percentiles (from n=1000  
491 simulations).

492

493 **Figure 3.** Probability of target attainment of time above minimum inhibitory concentration  
494 (MIC) of 100% with doses of 25,000 (red), 50,000 (green) and 100,000 (blue) IU/kg for  
495 different MIC values if protein binding was not considered (panel A) and with the fraction of  
496 unbound penicillin G of 40% (panel B). Dotted line presents probability of target attainment  
497 of 90%.

498

499 **Figure 4.** Probability of target attainment of the ratio of the 24-hour area under the unbound  
500 drug concentration-time curve to the minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) >100 with  
501 doses of 25,000 (red), 50,000 (green) and 100,000 (blue) IU/kg for different MIC values if  
502 protein binding was not considered (panel A) and with the fraction of unbound penicillin G of  
503 40% (panel B). Dotted line presents probability of target attainment of 90%.







